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Extension of P-adic Exact Scientific Computational Library (ESCL) to

Compute the Exponential of Rational Matrix

Annual Report (Grant # FA9550-07-1-0099)

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1. Summary

For the past three years, we have been developing an Exact Scientific Computational Library (ESCL) using p-adic arithmetic. New algorithms have been designed and implemented for matrix operations with rational numbers by representing numerator and denominator with arbitrary length integers, all integers and fractional numbers are represented by p-adic sequences, and all arithmetic calculations are carried out in p-adic domain. In this project, we have worked on: 1) investigating the relation of the length M of p-adic expansion for a rational matrix and the periodicity of a resulted p-adic sequence from arithmetic operation in p-adic field; and extension of the ESCL to compute: 2) the complex rational matrix, 3) the exponential of a rational matrix.

2. Progress on Length M and Periodicity of a p-adic Expansion

To determine what is the efficient length M of the p-adic expansion for a rational number in the matrix operation is not a trivial problem. Let us observe what happens after the arithmetic operations of two p-adic sequences.

All rational numbers can be uniquely written in the form,

$$a = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} a_j p^j . \qquad (1)$$

We know that a real number is rational if and only if its decimal expansion is periodic. Similarly, a p-adic number is rational if and only if its p-adic expansion is periodic. Consequently, since we are primarily interested in the p-adic expansions of rational numbers, we will be dealing only with p-adic expansions which are periodic. The expansion eventually repeats to the right. That is, if a is a rational number, then it has a repeating pattern of $a_i p^j$ in its p-adic expansion, i.e., it is of the form

$$a = A_0 \dots A_s \overline{a_0 \dots a_{n-1}} . \tag{2}$$

Addition/subtraction

Assume that we have two p-adic sequences, (s \leq t):

$$a = A_1 \dots A_s \overline{a_1 \dots a_n}$$

$$b = .B_1 ... B_t \overline{b_1 ... b_m}$$

Considering various carry digits' effects, we concluded that the maximum length of the p-adic expansion of $(a \pm b)$ is:

$$2 \times LCM(n,m) + \max(s,t) - 1. \tag{3}$$

Multiplication

$$\begin{aligned} a \times b &= .A_1 \dots A_s \overline{a_1 \dots a_n} \times .B_1 \dots B_t \overline{b_1 \dots b_m} \\ &= .A_1 \dots A_s \overline{a_1 \dots a_n} \times .B_1 \dots B_t + .A_1 \dots A_s \overline{a_1 \dots a_n} \times . 0 \dots 0 \overline{b_1 \dots b_m} \\ &= \underbrace{.A_1 \dots A_s \overline{a_1 \dots a_n} \times .B_1 \dots B_t}_{3} + \underbrace{.A_1 \dots A_s \times .0 \dots 0 \overline{b_1 \dots b_m}}_{2} + \underbrace{.0 \dots 0 \overline{a_1 \dots a_n} \times .0 \dots 0 \overline{b_1 \dots b_m}}_{3} \end{aligned}$$

Considering all the three parts separately and the various carry digits' effects, we concluded that, in multiplication, the length of periodic part of the product is:

$$LCM(m,n)\times(p^{GCD(m,n)}-1),$$
 (4)

where m and n are the length of periodic part of the two multipliers, p is the prime.

The length of periodicity of the resulting p-adic sequence can be very large from (4). But if we should represent all the p-adic sequences with a complete period during all the calculations, we can definitely carry out all the arithmetic operations exactly. Further investigation is needed to find proper length M which is smaller than the periodicity of a p-adic expansion. The determination of the efficient length M of the p-adic expansion for a rational number in the matrix operation becomes more important, when the algorithms in eigensystem computation use iterative arithmetic operations.

3. Progress on the Computation of Complex Rational Matrices

We have implemented the algorithms developed for single and matrix rational number operations (addition, subtraction, multiplication and division) in the *p*-adic field, to compute the complex rational arithmetic operations in the *p*-adic field as follows:

Complex addition

$$(a+bi)+(c+di)=(a+c)+i(b+d),$$
 (5)

Complex subtraction

$$(a+bi)-(c+di) = (a-c)+i(b-d), (6)$$

Complex multiplication

$$(a+bi)(c+di) = (ac-bd) + i(ad+bc),$$
 (7)

and Complex division

$$\frac{a+bi}{c+di} = \frac{ac+bd}{c^2+d^2} + i\frac{bc-ad}{c^2+d^2}.$$
 (8)

These complex operations are needed in the process of eigenvalue computation.

4. Progress on the Computation of Matrix Exponential

4.1 Compute matrix exponential with Jordan canonical form

Matrix decomposition methods, which are to be most efficient for problems involving large matrices evaluation of e^{tA} , are those which are based on factorizations or decompositions of the matrix A. The Jordan canonical form (JCF) decomposition is one of the many stated in [1]. Due to its truncation error by floating-point arithmetic operations, it has not been widely used, since a single rounding error may cause multiple eigenvalues to become distinct, which can alter the entire structure of the decomposition. If we can improve the accumulated floating-point truncation error created during the iteration process of the computation by p-adic arithmetic wherever possible, we hope that the stability and accuracy can be improved dramatically.

Definition: The Jordan canonical form decomposition states that there exists an invertible P such that

$$P^{-1}AP = J, (9)$$

where J is a direct sum, $J = J_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus J_k$, of Jordan blocks,

$$J_{i} = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_{i} & 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_{i} & 1 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & & & \vdots \\ & & & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & \lambda_{i} \end{bmatrix} \quad (m_{i} - by - m_{i}). \tag{10}$$

The λ_i are eigenvalues of A, here we assume that A is rational. Each Jordan block corresponds to a linearly independent eigenvector. If any of the m_i is greater than I, A is said to be defective. This means that A does not have a full set of n linearly independent eigenvectors. A is derogatory if there is more than one Jordan block associated with a given eigenvalue.

For a given matrix A, its Jordan canonical form J is completely determined by the maximal number of linearly independent eigenvectors of A: the number of the Jordan blocks in J is equal to the maximal number s of linearly independent eigenvectors of A, each of which is associated with a Jordan block whose order is the same as the 'rank' of the eigenvector.

Thus the number of Jordan blocks with the same eigenvalue λ is equal to the dimension of the eigen-space $E_{\lambda}=N(\lambda I-A)$, the number of linearly independent eigenvectors of A belonging to λ . Moreover, the sum of the orders of all Jordan blocks associated with an eigenvalue λ is equal to the multiplicity m_{λ} of λ .

In principle, the problem posed by defective eigensystems can be solved by resorting to the Jordan

canonical form (JCF).

If

$$A = P[J_1 \oplus \dots \oplus J_k]P^{-1} \tag{11}$$

is the JCF of A, then

$$e^{tA} = P \left[e^{tJ_1} \oplus \cdots \oplus e^{tJ_k} \right] P^{-1}. \tag{12}$$

Thus, it is enough to compute e^{iJ} for a simple Jordan block J. The exponentials of the Jordan blocks Ji can be given in closed form. For example, if

$$J_{i} = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_{i} & 1 & & 0 \\ & \ddots & \ddots & \\ & & \ddots & 1 \\ 0 & & & \lambda_{i} \end{bmatrix}, \tag{13}$$

then,

$$e^{U_{i}} = e^{\lambda_{i}t} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & t & t^{2}/2! & \cdots & t^{n-1}/(n-1)! \\ 0 & 1 & t & \ddots & t^{n-2}/(n-2)! \\ & & 1 & \ddots & \\ & & & \ddots & t \\ 0 & & & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$
(14)

It is important to know how sensitive a quantity is before its computation is attempted.

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One of the most important issues in the computation of matrix exponential with JCF is the evolution of performing eigenvalue analysis.

4.2 Power method

Numerical analysis, at its simplest, is an iterative technique. It is a fruitful exercise to study the Power method to get an in-depth understanding of the numerical solution for eigen-values and eigenvectors.

4.2.1 Algorithm

The Power method is an iterative technique used to determine the dominant eigenvalue of a matrix—that is, the eigenvalue with the largest magnitude. By modifying the method slightly, it can also be used to determine other eigen-values. One useful feature of the Power method is that it produces not only an eigenvalue, but also an associated eigenvector. In fact, the Power method is often applies to find an eigenvector for an eigenvalue that is determined by some other means.

To apply the Power method, we assume that the $n \times n$ matrix A has n eigen-values $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n$

with an associated collection of linearly independent eigenvectors $\{v^{(1)}, v^{(2)}, \cdots, v^{(n)}\}$. Moreover, we assume that A has precisely one eigenvalue, λ_1 , that is largest in magnitude, so that

$$\left|\lambda_{1}\right| > \left|\lambda_{2}\right| \ge \left|\lambda_{3}\right| \ge \cdots \ge \left|\lambda_{n}\right| \ge 0$$
.

If x is any vector in \mathfrak{R}^n , the fact that $\left\{v^{(1)},v^{(2)},\cdots,v^{(n)}\right\}$ is linearly independent implies that constants $\beta_1,\beta_2,\cdots,\beta_n$ exist with $x=\sum_{j=1}^n\beta_jv^{(j)}$.

By making a series of calculations, we get

$$\mu^{(m)} = \lambda_{1} \left[\frac{\beta_{1} v_{p_{m-1}}^{(1)} + \sum_{j=2}^{n} (\lambda_{j} / \lambda_{1})^{m} \beta_{j} v_{p_{m-1}}^{(j)}}{\beta_{1} v_{p_{m-1}}^{(1)} + \sum_{j=2}^{n} (\lambda_{j} / \lambda_{1})^{m-1} \beta_{j} v_{p_{m-1}}^{(j)}} \right],$$
(15)

and

$$x^{(m)} = \frac{A^m x^{(0)}}{\prod_{k=1}^m y_{p_k}^{(k)}}.$$
 (16)

By examining Eq. (15), we see that $\lim_{m\to\infty} \mu^{(m)} = \lambda_1$. Moreover, the sequence of vectors $\{x^{(m)}\}_{m=0}^{\infty}$ converges to an eigenvector associated with λ_1 .

The Power method implementation can be stated as follows:

INPUT: dimension n; matrix A; vector x; tolerance TOL; maximum number of iterations N.

OUTPUT: approximate eigenvalue μ ; approximate eigenvector x (with $\|x\|_{\infty} = 1$) or a message that the maximum number of iterations was exceeded.

Step 1 Set k=1.

Step 2 Find the smallest integer p with $1 \le p \le n$ and $|x_p| = ||x||_{\infty}$.

Step 3 Set $x = x/x_p$.

Step 4 While ($k \le N$) do Step 5-11.

Step 5 Set y = Ax.

Step 6 Set $\mu = y_p$.

Step 7 Find the smallest integer p with $1 \le p \le n$ and $|y_p| = ||y||_{\infty}$.

Step 8 If $y_p = 0$ then OUTPUT ('Eigenvector', x);

OUTPUT ('A has the eigenvalue 0, select a new vector x and restart');

STOP.

Step 9 Set
$$ERR = ||x - (y/y_p)||_{\infty}$$
;
 $x = y/y_p$

Step 10 If ERR < TOL then OUTPUT (μ, x) ;

(The procedure was successful.)

STOP.

Step 11 Set k=k+1.

Step 12 OUTPUT ('The maximum number of iterations exceeded');

(The procedure was unsuccessful.)

STOP.

As we can see, such an algorithm is designed to get the approximate eigen-values, round-off and truncation errors may be introduced by using floating point arithmetic during the computation, but the exact linear computation can avoid that kind of errors.

4.2.2 Implementation

For example, the matrix

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} -4 & 14 & 0 \\ -5 & 13 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

has eigen-values $\lambda_1=6$, $\lambda_2=3$, and $\lambda_3=2$, so the Power method described in this algorithm will converge. Let $x^{(0)}=(1,1,1)^t$, then

$$y^{(1)} = Ax^{(0)} = (10,8,1)^{t}$$
,

SO

$$\|y^{(1)}\|_{\infty} = 10, \mu^{(1)} = y_1^{(1)} = 10, \text{ and } x^{(1)} = \frac{y^{(1)}}{10} = (1, 0.8, 0.1)^t.$$

Continuing in this manner leads to the approximations to the dominant eigenvalue 1/3.

Comparison of the results of the exact linear computation and results using floating point arithmetic.

The results using floating point arithmetic as follows:

1	0.5555555555555558	8	0.3340807174887892
2	0.400000000000000002	9	0.33370618941088748
3	0.36111111111111094	10	0.3335195530726256
4	0.34615384615384615	11	0.3334263912153359
5	0.33950617283950624	12	0.33337984928830566
6	0.3363636363636362	13	0.33335658806567126
7	0.33483483483483478	14	0.33334495988838486

15 ,	0.33333914640810103	38	0.33333333333402604
16	0.33333623982003013	39	0.33333333333367965
17	0.33333478656401028	40	0.3333333333350645
18	0.3333340599455038	41	0.33333333333342008
19	0.33333369663862655	42	0.3333333333337667
20	0.33333351498578179	43	0.3333333333335502
21	0.33333342415950795	44	0.3333333333334414
22	0.33333337874640823	45	0.333333333333333
23	0.33333335603986758	46	0.3333333333333592
24	0.33333334468659981	47	0.33333333333333333
25	0.33333333900996609	48	0.3333333333333359
26	0.33333333617164973	49	0.333333333333333326
27	0.33333333475249138	50	0.333333333333333326
28	0.33333333404291232	51	0.333333333333333326
29	0.33333333368812279	52	0.333333333333333326
30	0.33333333351072825	53	0.333333333333333326
31	0.33333333342203075	54	0.3333333333333333326
32	0.33333333337768223	55	0.3333333333333333
33	0.3333333335550774	56	0.3333333333333333
34	0.33333333334442072	57	0.3333333333333333
35	0.33333333333887694	58	0.3333333333333333
36	0.33333333333610504	59	0.3333333333333333
37	0.33333333333471904	60	0.3333333333333333

The results of the exact linear computation using p-adic arithmetic as follows:

1:	7:
5/9	223/666
2:	8:
2/5	149/446
3:	9:
13/36	895/2682
4:	10:
9/26	597/1790
5:	11:
55/162	3583/10746
6:	12:
37/110	2389/7166

3758096383/11274289146 13: 32: 14335/43002 2505397589/7516192766 14: 9557/28670 33: 15032385535/45097156602 15: 34: 57343/172026 10021590357/30064771070 16: 35: 38229/114686 60129542143/180388626426 17: 36: 229375/688122 40086361429/120259084286 18: 37: 152917/458750 240518168575/721554505722 19: 917503/2752506 38: 160345445717/481036337150 20: 611669/1835006 962072674303/2886218022906 21: 40: 3670015/11010042 641381782869/1924145348606 22: 41: 2446677/7340030 3848290697215/11544872091642 23: 42: 14680063/44040186 2565527131477/7696581394430 24: 43: 9786709/29360126 15393162788863/46179488366586 25: 58720255/176160762 10262108525909/30786325577726 26: 45: 39146837/117440510 61572651155455/184717953466362 27: 46: 234881023/704643066 41048434103637/123145302310910 28: 156587349/469762046 246290604621823/738871813865466 29: 48: 939524095/2818572282 164193736414549/492581209243646 30: 626349397/1879048190 49: 985162418487295/2955487255461882 31:

50:

656774945658197/1970324836974590

51:

3940649673949183/11821949021847546

52.

2627099782632789/7881299347898366

53:

15762598695796735/47287796087390202

54:

10508399130531157/31525197391593470

55:

63050394783186943/189151184349560826

56:

42033596522124629/126100789566373886

57:

252201579132747775/756604737398243322

58:

168134386088498517/504403158265495550

59:

1008806316530991103/3026418949592973306

60:

672537544353994069/2017612633061982206

An obvious advantage of the exact linear computation using p-adic arithmetic is that, we can get results as accurate as we want with the loop increasing, while floating-point arithmetic can only reach a certain precision and stay at a value no matter how many loops it runs.

Precision is critical to the computation of the exponential of a rational matrix since the method requires a tremendous amount of operations, the truncation errors for every step will cumulate and finally make a great difference from the exact value. As a matter of fact, a little error will alter the entire structure of J and P and lead to an utterly wrong outcome, this will put the matter beyond a doubt that our "Exactly Computing" system would prove highly valuable on the computation of the exponential of a rational matrix.

4.3 Eigenvalues of a Real General Matrix

The solution of eigensystems is a fairly complicated business, almost all routines in use nowadays trace their ancestry back to routines published in Wilkinson and Reinsch's Handbook for Automatic Computation, Vol. II, Linear Algebra [2]. A public-domain implementation of the Handbook routines in FORTRAN is the EISPACK set of programs [3]. It includes the ability to solve for eigenvalues and

eigenvectors of various kinds of matrices, has been implemented. The routines we used are translations of either the Handbook or EISPACK routines.

The matrix is first balanced. Orthogonal similarity transformations are used to reduce the balanced matrix to a real upper Hessenberg matrix. The implicit double-shifted *QR* algorithm is used to compute the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of this Hessenberg matrix.

4.3.1 Balancing

The idea of balancing is to use similarity transformations to make corresponding rows and columns of the matrix have comparable norms, thus reducing the overall norm of the matrix while leaving the eigenvalues unchanged. It is recommended to always balance non symmetric matrices. It never hurts, and it can substantially improve the accuracy of the eigenvalues computed for a badly balanced matrix.

Balancing is a procedure with of order N^2 operations. The actual algorithm used is due to Osborne, as discussed in [2]. It consists of a sequence of similarity transformations by diagonal matrices. The output is a matrix that is balanced in the norm given by summing the absolute magnitudes of the matrix elements.

Note that if the off-diagonal elements of any row or column of a matrix are all zero, then the diagonal element is an eigenvalue. If the eigenvalue happens to be ill-conditioned (sensitive to small changes in the matrix elements), it will have relatively large errors when determined by the routine *hqr*. We could have determined the isolated eigenvalue exactly and then deleted the corresponding row and column from the matrix.

4.3.2 Reduction to Hessenberg Form

First we reduce the matrix to a simpler form, and then we perform an iterative procedure on the simplified matrix. The simpler structure we use here is called Hessenberg form. An upper Hessenberg matrix has zeros everywhere below the diagonal except for the first sub-diagonal row. For example, in the 6×6 case, the nonzero elements are:

Here we use a procedure analogous to Gaussian elimination with pivoting. Before the rth stage, the original matrix $A \equiv A_1$ has become A_r , which is upper Hessenberg in its first r-1 rows and columns. The rth stage then consists of the following sequence of operations:

- Find the element of maximum magnitude in the rth column below the diagonal. If it is zero, skip the next two "bullets" and the stage is done. Otherwise, suppose the maximum element was in row r.
- Interchange rows r' and r+1. This is the pivoting procedure. To make the permutation a similarity transformation, also interchange columns r' and r+1.
- For i = r + 2, r + 3, ..., N, compute the multiplier

$$n_{i,r+1} \equiv \frac{a_{ir}}{a_{r+1,r}}$$

Subtract $n_{i,r+1}$ times row r+1 from row i. To make the elimination a similarity transformation, also add $n_{i,r+1}$ times column i to column r+1.

A total of N-2 such stages are required.

4.3.3 The QR Algorithm for Real Hessenberg Matrices

The basic idea behind the QR algorithm is that any real matrix can be decomposed in the form

$$A = Q \cdot R \,, \tag{17}$$

where Q is orthogonal and R is upper triangular. Now consider the matrix formed by writing the in the opposite order:

$$A' = R \cdot Q \quad . \tag{18}$$

Since Q is orthogonal, equation (17) gives $R = Q^T \cdot A$. Thus equation (18) becomes

$$A' = Q^T \cdot A \cdot Q . \tag{19}$$

We see that A' is an orthogonal transformation of A.

The QR algorithm consists of a sequence of orthogonal transformations:

$$A_{\rm s} = Q_{\rm s} \cdot R_{\rm s} \,, \qquad (20)$$

$$A_{s+1} = R_s \cdot Q_s \quad (= Q_s^T \cdot A_s \cdot Q_s). \tag{21}$$

The QR transformation preserves the upper Hessenberg form of the original matrix $A \equiv A_1$, and the workload on such a matrix is $O(n^2)$ per iteration as opposed to $O(n^3)$ on a general matrix. As $s \to \infty$, A_s converges to a form where the eigenvalues are either isolated on the diagonal or are eigenvalues of a 2×2 sub-matrix on the diagonal.

In order to accelerate convergence, we deployed the technique of shifting: If k is any constant, then A-kI has eigen-values λ_i-k . If we decompose

$$A_{s} - k_{s}I = Q_{s} \cdot R_{s}, \qquad (22)$$

so that

$$A_{s+1} = R_s \cdot Q_s + k_s I$$

= $Q_s^T \cdot A_s \cdot Q_s$, (23)

then we verified that the convergence is determined by the ratio

$$\frac{\lambda_i - k_s}{\lambda_i - k_s}$$

here $\lambda_i < \lambda_j$. A good choice for the shift k_s would maximize the rate of convergence.

Any real matrix can be triangularized by pre-multiplying it by a sequence of Householder matrices P_1 (acting on the first column), P_2 (acting on the second column),..., P_{n-1} . Thus $Q = P_{n-1} \cdots P_2 \cdot P_1$, and the first row of Q is the first row of P_1 since P_1 is an $(i-1) \times (i-1)$ identity matrix in the top left-hand corner.

×

The Householder matrix P_1 is determined by the first column of $(A_s - k_{s+1}I) \cdot (A_s - k_sI)$, which has the form $[p_1, q_1, r_1, 0, ..., 0]^T$, where

$$p_{1} = a_{21} \left[\frac{(a_{nn} - a_{11})(a_{n-1,n-1} - a_{11}) - a_{n-1,n}a_{n,n-1}}{a_{21}} + a_{12} \right]$$

$$q_{1} = a_{21} \left[a_{22} - a_{11} - (a_{nn} - a_{11}) - (a_{n-1,n-1} - a_{11}) \right] \qquad (24)$$

$$r_{1} = a_{21}a_{32}$$

Since it has only first 3 elements nonzero, the matrix $P_1 \cdot A_s \cdot P_1^T$ is upper Hessenberg with 3 extra elements:

This produces a matrix with the 3 extra elements appearing one column over:

Proceeding in this way up to P_{n-1} , we see that at each stage the Householder matrix P_r has a vector that is nonzero only in elements r, r+1, and r+2. These elements are determined by the elements r, r+1, and r+2 in the (r-1)st column of the current matrix.

In summary, to carry out a double QR step we construct the Householder matrices, P_r , $r=1,\ldots,n-1$. For P_1 we use p_1 , q_1 , and r_1 given by (24). For the remaining matrices, p_r ,

 q_r , and r_r are determined by the (r, r-1), (r+1, r-1), and (r+2, r-1) elements of the current matrix. Algorithm description:

There are two possible ways of terminating the iteration for an eigenvalue. First, if $a_{n,n-1}$ becomes "negligible," then $a_{n,n}$ is an eigenvalue. We can then delete the nth row and column of the matrix and look for the next eigenvalue. Alternatively, $a_{n-1,n-2}$ may become negligible. In this case the eigenvalues of the 2×2 matrix in the lower right-hand corner may be taken to be eigenvalues. We delete the nth and (n-1)st rows and columns of the matrix and continue.

The test for convergence to an eigenvalue is combined with a test for negligible sub-diagonal elements that allows splitting of the matrix into sub-matrices. We find the largest i such that $a_{i,i-1}$ is negligible. If i = n, we have found a single eigenvalue. If i = n-1, we have found two eigenvalues. Otherwise we continue the iteration on the sub-matrix in rows i to n.

After determining i, the sub-matrix in rows i to n is examined to see if the product of any two consecutive sub-diagonal elements is small enough that we can work with an even smaller sub-matrix, starting say in row m. We start with m = n-2 and decrement it down to i+1, computing p, q, and r according to equations (24) with 1 replaced by m and 2 by m+1. If these were indeed the elements of the special "first" Householder matrix in a double QR step, then applying the Householder matrix would lead to nonzero elements in positions (m+1,m-1), (m+2,m-1), and (m+2,m). We require that the first two of these elements be small compared with the local diagonal elements $a_{m-1,m-1}$, $a_{m,m}$ and $a_{m+1,m+1}$. A satisfactory approximate criterion is

$$|a_{m,m-1}|(|q|+|r|) \square |p|(|a_{m+1,m+1}|+|a_{m,m}|+|a_{m-1,m-1}|).$$
 (25)

If ten iterations occur without determining an eigenvalue, the usual shifts are replaced for the next iteration by shifts defined by

$$k_{s} + k_{s+1} = 1.5 \times (\left| a_{n,n-1} \right| + \left| a_{n-1,n-2} \right|)$$

$$k_{s} k_{s+1} = (\left| a_{n,n-1} \right| + \left| a_{n-1,n-2} \right|)^{2}$$
 (26)

This strategy is repeated after 20 unsuccessful iterations. After 30 unsuccessful iterations, the routine reports failure.

Because our system carries out exact arithmetic operations, we are able to set the tolerance for the condition as "negligible", which means using $a_{n,n-1} < Tolerance$ and

$$\begin{split} &\frac{\left|a_{m,m-1}\right|(|q|+|r|)}{|p|(\left|a_{m+1,m+1}\right|+\left|a_{m,m}\right|+\left|a_{m-1,m-1}\right|)} < Tolerance \,, \quad \text{instead of} \quad a_{n,n-1} = 0 \\ &(float)(\left|a_{m,m-1}\right|(|q|+|r|)+\left|p\right|(\left|a_{m+1,m+1}\right|+\left|a_{m,m}\right|+\left|a_{m-1,m-1}\right|)) == \left|p\right|(\left|a_{m+1,m+1}\right|+\left|a_{m,m}\right|+\left|a_{m-1,m-1}\right|) \end{split}$$

when deploying floating point arithmetic. The results would be more precise with a smaller tolerance.

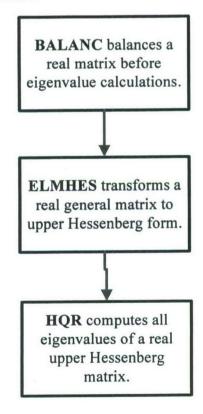
4.3.4 The Modules

Our program calculates the eigenvalues of an $N \times N$ real general Matrix A. The algorithm is a translated version of the EISPACK subprogram RG.F.

List of Routines:

RG.F calls subroutines BALANC, ELMHES and HQR.

Program Overview Flowchart:



BALANC

void balanc(vec_ZZ & vecTnum, vec_ZZ & vecTden,mat_ZZ & matPadics1,int & nm, int & n,int & low,int & igh,vec_ZZ & scaleNum, vec_ZZ & scaleDen);

Function Description: It balances a real matrix and isolates eigenvalues whenever possible.

INPUT:

nm must be set to the row dimension of two-dimensional array parameters as declared in the calling program dimension statement.

n is the order of the matrix.

vecTnum vecTden and matPadics1 contain the input matrix to be balanced.

OUTPUT:

vecTnum vecTden and matPadics1 contain the balanced matrix.

low and igh are two integers such that A[i,j] is equal to zero if (1) i is greater than j and (2) j=1,...,low-1 or i=igh+1,...,n.

scale contains information determining the permutations and scaling factors used.

ELMHES

void elmhes(vec_ZZ & vecTnum, vec_ZZ & vecTden,mat_ZZ & matPadics1,int & nm, int & n,int &
low,int & igh ,int & inte);

Function Description: Given a real general matrix, it reduces a sub-matrix situated in rows and columns low through igh to upper Hessenberg form by stabilized elementary similarity transformations.

INPUT:

nm must be set to the row dimension of two-dimensional array parameters as declared in the calling program dimension statement.

n is the order of the matrix.

low and igh are integers determined by Balanc. If Balanc has not been used, set low=1, igh=n. vecTnum vecTden and matPadics1 contain the input matrix.

OUTPUT:

vecTnum vecTden and matPadics1 contain the Hessenberg matrix. The multipliers, which were used in the

reduction, are stored in the remaining triangle under the Hessenberg matrix.

inte contains information on the rows and columns interchanged in the reduction. Only elements *low* through *igh* are used.

HQR

void hqr(int & nm, int & n, int & low,int & igh,vec_ZZ & vecTnum, vec_ZZ & vecTden,mat_ZZ &
matPadics1,vec_ZZ & wrNum,vec_ZZ & wrDen,vec_ZZ & wiNum,vec_ZZ & wiDen,int & ierr);

Function Description: It finds the eigenvalues of a real upper Hessenberg matrix by the QR method.

INPUT:

nm must be set to the row dimension of two-dimensional array parameters as declared in the calling program dimension statement.

n is the order of the matrix.

low and igh are integers determined by Balanc. If Balanc has not been used, set low=1, igh=n. vecTnum vecTden and matPadics1 contain the upper Hessenberg matrix. Information about the transformations used in the reduction to Hessenberg form by Elmhes, if performed, is stored in the remaining triangle under the Hessenberg matrix.

OUTPUT:

vecTnum vecTden and matPadics1 have been destroyed. Therefore, it must be saved before calling hqr, if subsequent calculation and back transformation of eigenvectors is to be performed.

 $wrNum\ wrDen$ and $wiNum\ wrDen$ contain the real and imaginary parts, respectively, of the eigenvalues. The eigenvalues are unordered except that complex conjugate pairs of values appear consecutively with the eigenvalue having the positive imaginary part first. If an error exit is made, the eigenvalues should be correct for indices ierr+1,...,n.

ierr is set to zero for normal return, or set to j if the limit of 30*n iterations is exhausted while the j-th eigenvalue is being sought.

The matrix and related parameters are stored as p-adic sequences in mat_ZZ and fractional number.

For the rational data structure, the numerator and denominator of the rational are stored separately in array

vecTnum and vecTden as arbitrary length integers. This maintains the precision of the numbers during the calculation. During computational process all rational numbers will keep their fractional data type. The floating-point data type was never used, to keep the calculation free of round-off/truncation errors.

Note the Error Code output: if normal return, ierr = -1; if Error Code > 0, it indicates that more than 30 iterations of a subroutine were required to determine an eigenvalue. In this case, the subroutine terminated after 30 iterations.

The eigenvectors are outputted as a square $N \times N$ matrix whose entries correspond to the eigenvalues as follows: If the *i*-th eigenvalue is real, the *i*-th COLUMN of the eigenvector matrix contains the corresponding eigenvector; If the *i*-th eigenvalue is complex with positive imaginary part, COLUMNS *i* and (i+1) of the eigenvector matrix contain the real and imaginary parts of the corresponding eigenvector.

4.3.5 Result Analyses

We use the following example to show the advantages of our programs in terms of exactness.

$$\begin{bmatrix} -\frac{4}{111} & \frac{14}{111} & 0 \\ -\frac{5}{111} & \frac{13}{111} & 0 \\ -\frac{1}{111} & 0 & \frac{2}{111} \end{bmatrix}$$
has eigenvalues $\lambda_1 = \frac{2}{111}$, $\lambda_2 = \frac{6}{111}$, and $\lambda_3 = \frac{3}{111}$.

The input matrix

Result:

THE BALANCED MATRIX is:

2/111 0/1 -1/111

0/1 13/111 -5/111

0/1 14/111 -4/111

THE UPPER HESSENBERG MATRIX is:

2/111 0/1 -1/111

0/1 13/111 -5/111

0/1 14/111 -4/111

Eigenvalue 1:

2/111 + j0/1

Eigenvalue 2:

63178856539022137534603232844447919243141752873454388349413852459138316119468484
42681807604340724694107445125247221100439652494582522383618778441773705174597789
53720275676747852558030812556415798698659036732822570624891802079542434148013549
687799011165595854768751548809514622895473538432573440+ j0/1

Eigenvalue 3:

60511382019182510241051952901759104433153740341631052883317292036104404338206446 81194527331480535166259021749671017712192449490219251970337339431485726709989654 96942207328995862139063569994252025276440535290179874631670833646505346718918227 02651289483605420634326577978497485950488163291474699646093863977026762394818930 83776888573483781601940843849175645606233866292110823670307664350086514163466508 99355037898275689201553037174122448467622136983868352425261920417856760137613786 83840214969680488350522925941696611133249854543125524591+j0/1.

As far as exactness is concerned, as we can see from the above example, our system can obtain much more accurate results, since floating-point arithmetic operations can only provide the precision limited by the precision of the data type. Our system performs much more accurate results and can be trusted in the process of exact computation.

5. Conclusions and Discussion

Despite the advantages of finite segment p-adic arithmetic, there is a problem need to be solved—the estimation of an efficient length M of the p-adic expansion in arithmetic operations. Currently, it cannot give the sufficient number of digits for p-adic sequence for exact computation in some situation. As we concluded that the maximum length of the p-adic expansion's periodical part of $(a \pm b)$ is LCM(n,m); in multiplication, the maximum length of periodic part of the product of $(a \times b)$ is $LCM(m,n) \times (p^{GCD(m,n)}-1)$.

In order to compute matrix exponential with JCF, we performed eigenvalue analysis. The routines we used are translations of EISPACK: The matrix is first balanced; Orthogonal similarity transformations are used to reduce the balanced matrix to a real upper Hessenberg matrix; The implicit double-shifted QR algorithm is used to compute the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of this Hessenberg matrix.

Thus, to determine the efficient length M of the p-adic expansion for a rational number in the matrix operation becomes an important problem. In particular, the algorithm in eigensystems may use iterative arithmetic operations. This made the situation even more complicated. From our experience of

implementing the eigensystem in p-adic field, the mechanism for setting the length M is our biggest concern, because running time is related to it, a large M will increase the runtime tremendously. When dealing with iterative arithmetic operations, the required length of the p-adic sequence will keep on increasing during the computation.

One possible solution is to create a gradual increasing "M". As we know, the corresponding fraction numbers will be completely different for the same p-adic sequence with different lengths. If we can predict the range of the approximate eigenvalue based on previous results, we would be able to adjust the "M" when an abnormal result occurs. To be precise, we can set a judgmental mechanism after the operation, if an abnormal result occurs, redo the operation with an larger "M", at the same time, reduce the p-adic expansion of the products to its minimum size.

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